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Obstructive sleep apnea treatment with continuous positive airway pressure therapy improves renin angiotensin system activity

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Obstructive Sleep Apnea Treatment with
Continuous Positive Airway Pressure Therapy Improves
Renin Angiotensin System Activity

by

David Nicholl

A THESIS

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ABSTRACT

Background Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is strongly associated with cardiorenal disease. Limited studies suggest that renin angiotensin system (RAS) activation may mediate this relationship. We sought to determine the effect of continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) on the hemodynamic and circulating RAS component responses to Angiotensin II (AngII) infusion.

Methods Twelve moderate-severe OSA subjects with hypoxia were studied in high-salt balance before and 1 month after starting treatment with CPAP. Mean arterial pressure (MAP), plasma renin activity (PRA), and aldosterone were measured in response to AngII (3ng/kg/minx30min, 6ng/kg/minx30min, 30min recovery).

Results CPAP corrected OSA; reduced MAP (95 ± 2 vs 89 ± 2 mmHg, $p=0.019$), aldosterone (179 ± 27 vs 115 ± 14 pmol/L, $p=0.006$), and protein excretion ($69[39,341]$ vs $48[22,204]$ mg/day, $p=0.002$); and increased MAP sensitivity to 3ng/kg/min AngII (10 ± 2 vs 15 ± 2 mmHg, $p=0.019$), but not 6ng/kg/min AngII or recovery. RAS component sensitivity was unaffected.

Conclusions CPAP treatment decreased RAS activity and increased hemodynamic sensitivity to AngII, supporting a role for the RAS in mediating OSA-induced hypertension.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is for my family, friends, colleagues, and mentors for all of their guidance and support over the last 2 years.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACE, angiotensin-converting enzyme
AHI, apnea hypopnea index
AngI, angiotensin I
AngII, angiotensin II
ARB, angiotensin II type-1 receptor blocker
AT₁, angiotensin II type-1
AT₂, angiotensin II type-2
BMI, body mass index
BP, blood pressure
CAPD, continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis
CHD, conventional hemodialysis
CIH, chronic intermittent hypoxia
CKD, chronic kidney disease
CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure
CSR, Cheyne-Stokes respiration
DBP, diastolic blood pressure
eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate
eNOS, endothelial nitric oxide synthase
ESRD, end-stage renal disease
FF, filtration fraction
FMC, Foothills Medical Centre
MAP, mean arterial pressure
MetS, metabolic syndrome
NHD, nocturnal hemodialysis
NO, nitric oxide
NPD, nocturnal peritoneal dialysis
NS, non-significant
OSA, obstructive sleep apnea
OSAS, obstructive sleep apnea syndrome
PP, pulse pressure
PRA, plasma renin activity
RAS, renin angiotensin system
RDI, respiratory disturbance index
RIA, radioimmunoassay
SaO₂, oxyhemoglobin saturation
SBP, systolic blood pressure
SE, standard error
UTPE, urinary total protein excretion

EPIGRAPH

If you don't go after what you want, you'll never have it. If you don't ask, the answer is always no. If you don't step forward, you're always in the same place.

-Nora Roberts

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is a growing public health problem worldwide.¹⁻³ Despite advances in prevention and treatment, the incidence and prevalence of CKD are increasing,^{1, 2} and the burden of disease remains high.⁴⁻⁸ Consequently, novel therapies for the treatment and prevention of kidney function loss are greatly needed. There is growing recognition of the widespread incidence and health consequences of obstructive sleep apnea (OSA).⁹⁻¹⁸ While there is a well-accepted relationship between OSA and the development of hypertension,^{9, 12, 19-25} there is also increasing evidence suggesting an association between sleep-disordered breathing and the presence of kidney disease in the form of proteinuria,²⁶⁻³⁴ although not all studies have confirmed this relationship.³⁵⁻³⁷ We and others have shown an increased prevalence of OSA in CKD³⁸⁻⁴⁴ and end-stage renal disease (ESRD).^{38, 42, 43, 45-51} Further, there is a clear association between nocturnal hypoxia and loss of kidney function.⁵² We have also reported an increased prevalence of nocturnal hypoxia in patients with CKD and ESRD.⁴³ Of importance, the mechanism underlying the loss of kidney function associated with OSA is unclear, but limited studies suggest a prominent role of the renin angiotensin system (RAS), activation of which results in a predisposition to kidney disease.⁵³

Obstructive Sleep Apnea

Definition

Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is a chronic medical disorder characterized by a complete or partial cessation of breathing during sleep, caused by pharyngeal occlusion, which is associated with intermittent hypoxia and sleep disruption.^{54, 55} OSA is considered present when these breathing disturbances occur with a minimum frequency of 5 events per hour of sleep and

last for at least 10 seconds.^{54, 55} These events occur due to anatomical and physiological features of the upper airway and their neural control or as a result of craniofacial parameters.⁵⁶ OSA was first properly documented and described in the 1960s,⁵⁷ though there is evidence that sleep apnea has been recognized throughout human history, with reports dating from as far back as the 4th century BC and throughout the 19th and 20th centuries AD.⁵⁸

Diagnosis

OSA is diagnosed by an overnight sleep study (polysomnography or portable monitoring) which monitors breathing during sleep and expresses the frequency of respiratory disturbances as either the apnea hypopnea index (AHI) or the respiratory disturbance index (RDI).⁵⁹ The AHI and RDI are comparable indices for determining the number of respiratory events.^{60, 61} Polysomnography is the gold standard for diagnosing OSA.⁵⁵ However, portable monitoring is an acceptable alternative in patients suspected of having OSA.⁶²⁻⁶⁴ Mild, moderate, and severe OSA are defined as an AHI or RDI $\geq 5 \text{ hr}^{-1}$, $\geq 15 \text{ hr}^{-1}$, and $\geq 30 \text{ hr}^{-1}$, respectively.⁵⁴ Obstructive sleep apnea syndrome (OSAS) describes the combined features of an RDI ≥ 5 and at least one of the symptoms attributed to sleep apnea known to respond to treatment, such as excessive daytime sleepiness, loud snoring, observed apneas, nocturnal choking, and sleep disruption.^{54, 55,}
^{59, 65} Nocturnal hypoxia, which is often caused by and associated with OSA, is defined as an oxyhemoglobin saturation (SaO_2) $< 90\%$ for $\geq 12\%$ of night.¹²

Epidemiology

In the general population, mild OSA (RDI ≥ 5) occurs in 24% of men and 9% of women, while moderate OSA (RDI ≥ 15) occurs in 9% of men and 4% of women.⁶⁶ However, more recent studies have reported the prevalence of asymptomatic OSA to be as high as 20-30% in the middle-aged population.^{67, 68} The variance in prevalence estimates for OSA can be explained by

the populations studied and the inclusion/exclusion of daytime symptoms for a diagnosis of OSA. For instance, the prevalence of mild OSAS ($RDI \geq 5$ and daytime symptoms) has been reported to occur in 4% of men and 2% of women.⁶⁶ The same study reported the prevalence of mild asymptomatic OSA ($RDI \geq 5$) to occur in 24% of men and 9% of women.⁶⁶ Prevalence estimates also vary with age and gender.^{66, 69-71} Importantly, an estimated 82% of men and 93% of women with moderate to severe sleep apnea syndrome are not clinically diagnosed.⁶⁷

Complications and Risk Factors

OSA causes excessive daytime sleepiness, inattention, fatigue, and impairment of sleep quality,^{55, 72} which in turn impairs daytime and neurocognitive function,⁷³⁻⁷⁶ induces or exacerbates cognitive deficits,^{73, 74} diminishes quality of life,⁷⁷ and increases the likelihood of errors^{73, 74} and both motor vehicle⁷⁸⁻⁸⁵ and occupational^{86, 87} accidents. OSA increases the risk of systemic hypertension,^{9, 12, 23-25} mild pulmonary hypertension,⁸⁸⁻⁹² stroke,^{14, 93-96} cardiovascular disease,^{13, 18, 97-102} including arrhythmias,^{99, 103, 104} atherosclerosis,¹⁸ myocardial infarction,^{97, 100} and heart failure,^{98, 101} and both cardiovascular¹⁰⁵⁻¹⁰⁷ and all-cause mortality.^{105, 107-111} OSA may also increase the risk of type 2 diabetes,^{15, 112, 113} dyslipidemia,¹⁷ metabolic syndrome^{10, 16, 114, 115} (MetS; defined as a constellation of abdominal obesity, hypertension, dyslipidemia, and dysglycemia¹¹⁶), and perioperative complications (due to intubation difficulty and impaired arousals from sedatives).¹¹⁷ Idiopathic fibrosis¹¹⁸ and cancer¹¹ have been associated with OSA. Further, OSA may accelerate the deterioration of kidney function.^{52, 119-123}

Definite risk factors for OSA include obesity, male gender, aging, menopause, vascular disease, and craniofacial and upper airway soft tissue abnormalities (abnormal maxillary or short mandibular size, tonsillar hypertrophy, adenoid hypertrophy, and a wide craniofacial base).^{56, 66, 68, 124, 125} Potential risk factors for OSA include heredity, race and ethnicity, current smoking (but

not past smoking), and nasal congestion.^{56, 66, 68-71, 124, 126, 127} Diabetes may also be a risk factor for sleep-disordered breathing.^{45, 128} OSA is also more prevalent in African Americans compared to Caucasians of a similar body weight¹²⁹ and the prevalence of OSA in Asia is similar to that of North America despite a lower body weight.^{130, 131} Racial differences may be related to differences in craniofacial structure.^{130, 131}

Younger people with OSA are more likely to have hypertension,¹³² atrial fibrillation,¹⁰³ and suffer greater all-cause mortality.^{108, 109} Overall, OSA patients use more medical resources and have a greater medical burden than individuals without OSA.^{14, 96, 102, 111, 124, 133} The signs, symptoms, and consequences of OSA are a direct result of the alterations that occur due to the repetitive collapse of the upper airway and include hypoxemia, hypercapnia, sleep fragmentation, swings in intrathoracic pressure, and increased sympathetic nervous system activity, during sleep over the period of months to years.^{55, 127, 134}

Treatment

Treatment of OSA involves behaviour modification (including weight loss, exercise, sleep posture and hygiene, alcohol avoidance, and avoidance of certain medications) and OSA-specific therapies including positive airway pressure, oral appliance, and surgery.^{59, 127} Continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) is considered the first line therapy.^{55, 135} The positive airflow pressure that is generated by the airflow turbine pump splints open the pharynx, thereby preventing apneas, hypopneas, snoring, and sleep fragmentation.¹³⁶ Indeed, CPAP therapy effectively reduces respiratory events and hypoxia during sleep,^{135, 137-139} daytime sleepiness,^{75, 139-143} blood pressure,^{114, 139, 140, 144-156} hospitalizations,¹⁵⁷ MetS,¹¹⁴ cardiovascular events,^{13, 106, 158} motor vehicle accidents,^{79, 80} and mortality^{106, 107, 159, 160}; improves quality of life,^{75, 139} cognition,^{75, 161} driver performance,⁸⁴ and indices of glycemic control^{112, 114}; and has

been demonstrated to be cost-effective.^{80, 162-166} CPAP therapy has also been demonstrated to reduce oxidative stress,¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁶⁹ pro-inflammatory cytokines,^{168, 170-173} endothelin-1,¹⁷⁴ and sympathetic nervous system activity,^{172, 173, 175-177} while concomitantly improving baroreflex sensitivity (an index of cardiac sympatho-vagal balance)¹⁷⁸ and endothelial function.^{179, 180} Importantly, discontinuing therapy for even 1 night may mitigate the benefits of CPAP.^{139, 181-183}

Chronic Kidney Disease

Definition, Epidemiology, Risk Factors, and Complications

Chronic kidney disease is defined as either reduced kidney function (estimated glomerular filtration rate [eGFR] <60 mL/min/1.73m²)¹⁸⁴ for 3 or more months or evidence of kidney damage on urinalysis, imaging, or biopsy.¹ CKD is a health burden affecting over 2 million Canadians.³ At present, the prevalence of CKD in the United States has been estimated to be 13.1%.² However, the incidence and prevalence of kidney disease are rising, outcomes are poor, and costs to the health care system are high.^{1, 2, 185} The major adverse outcomes of CKD, regardless of cause, include progression to ESRD, complications of decreased kidney function, and cardiovascular disease.^{1, 4, 5, 7, 8, 186-189} Co-morbid diabetes, hypertension, and proteinuria may further promote the development of cardiovascular disease in CKD patients.¹⁹⁰ In patients with cardiovascular disease, diabetes, or hypertension, the presence of CKD acts as a risk multiplier, especially if proteinuria is present.¹⁹¹ Proteinuria, even within the normal range, is a powerful predictor and potential contributor to cardiovascular events,¹⁹²⁻²⁰⁴ CKD progression,^{198, 199} ESRD,^{198, 199, 205, 206} and all-cause mortality.^{193, 195, 197-199, 202, 207} As a result of the high cardiovascular mortality, which occurs well before progression to ESRD,^{186, 188} only a minority of CKD patients survive long enough to require renal replacement therapy (defined as dialysis or renal transplantation).¹⁸⁸ Aging,^{185, 208-210} male gender,^{185, 211} obesity,^{185, 212, 213} smoking,²¹⁴⁻²¹⁹

diabetes,¹⁹⁰ MetS,²²⁰⁻²²² dyslipidemia,^{223, 224} and hypertension^{225, 226} are all risk factors for CKD. Patients with CKD are at high risk for progression to dialysis and cardiovascular disease,^{4, 5, 186, 227, 228} and despite recent advances in detection and treatment, including hypertension control, anemia management, and dialysis adequacy, progression of disease and mortality remain high.⁴⁻⁸ Consequently, CKD remains a significant burden to the health care system and novel therapies are needed for the prevention and treatment of loss of kidney function. An improved understanding of non-traditional risk factors that are present at early phases in CKD may lead to novel therapeutic strategies for preventing loss of kidney function.

Obstructive Sleep Apnea and Chronic Kidney Disease

Epidemiology

We and others have shown an increased prevalence of OSA (RDI ≥ 15) ranging from 27-54% in CKD patients³⁹⁻⁴³ and 45-70% in patients with ESRD^{38, 42, 43, 45-50}. Further, almost 50% of CKD and ESRD patients have significant nocturnal hypoxia (SaO₂ < 90% for $\geq 12\%$ of night).⁴³ Conversely, CKD is more prevalent in OSA patients,²²⁹⁻²³¹ with a reported prevalence of 18% in normotensive, non-diabetic patients with severe OSA (RDI ≥ 30).²³¹ Nocturnal hypoxia has also been associated with accelerated loss of kidney function.⁵² Further, while hypertension occurs frequently in patients with sleep apnea,^{9, 12, 23-25} the combination of elevated blood pressure and sleep apnea is even more common among CKD patients,²³² suggesting a potential interaction or additive effect. Severe OSA has been associated with increased serum Cystatin C (a biomarker considered to reflect latent renal dysfunction and cardiovascular risk) levels,^{122, 123} while increasing OSA severity has been associated with reduced renal function.^{121, 123} OSA and nocturnal hypoxia have also been demonstrated to be independent risk factors for cardiovascular and all-cause mortality in dialysis patients.²³³⁻²³⁵ Aging,^{56, 66, 124, 185, 208, 209} male gender,^{56, 66, 124,}

^{185, 211} obesity,^{56, 66, 124, 212, 213} and smoking^{124, 126, 214-219} are risk factors shared by CKD and OSA. Further, consequences of OSA, including type 2 diabetes,¹⁹⁰ MetS,²²⁰⁻²²² dyslipidemia,^{223, 224} and hypertension^{225, 226} are also risk factors for CKD. Consequently, the relationship between OSA and nocturnal hypoxia with kidney disease is most likely bi-directional, with the presence of one exacerbating the other in a vicious cycle.

Importantly, CPAP therapy has been shown to be an effective treatment for OSA in ESRD patients.²³⁶ Though, OSA is thought to be underdiagnosed in kidney patients,²³⁷ with the stereotypical sleep-related symptoms of OSA, namely snoring, witnessed apneas, nocturnal choking, and daytime sleepiness being reported less by CKD and ESRD patients.^{238, 239} Further, while some investigators have found the traditional risk factors of aging, male gender, and obesity to be associated with OSA in CKD and ESRD populations,^{43, 51, 235, 239-241} several others have found these associations to be weaker than in non-CKD populations indicating that the clinical presentation of OSA may be atypical in these populations.^{38, 48, 239, 242-244}

Conversion of ESRD patients receiving thrice weekly conventional hemodialysis (CHD) to more intensive nocturnal hemodialysis (NHD) has been demonstrated to improve OSA.⁵⁰ Similarly, conversion from continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis (CAPD) to cyclical-assisted nocturnal peritoneal dialysis (NPD) has been shown to reduce the frequency of OSA.²⁴⁵ Several studies have also reported an improvement of OSA with renal transplantation,²⁴⁶⁻²⁴⁹ though two studies found an improvement in only a minority of patients.^{243, 250} High risk of OSA, as assessed by the Berlin Questionnaire,²⁵¹ has been found to be highly prevalent in the kidney transplant population²⁵² and was further found to be an independent predictor of graft loss among female kidney transplant patients.²⁵³ However, it should be noted that the Berlin Questionnaire is not

interchangeable with objective monitoring²⁵¹ and has recently been shown to have low diagnostic accuracy in the CKD and ESRD populations.²⁵⁴

Pathogenesis

Both obstructive and central sleep apnea have been reported to occur in the CKD and ESRD populations.^{43, 45, 50} This supports the hypothesis that the pathogenesis of sleep apnea in this population is due both to destabilization of central ventilatory control and upper airway occlusion. At present, there is a paucity of literature examining these relationships in CKD patients as previous studies have been confined to patients with ESRD or normal kidney function, though these same mechanisms may be occurring in patients with CKD. In ESRD, OSA severity has been reported to be positively correlated with enhanced ventilatory sensitivity,²⁴² which in turn destabilizes respiratory control by increasing loop gain.^{127, 134} In brief, apneas occur when the respiratory drive is less than the threshold for inspiratory muscle activation and maintenance of upper airway patency during sleep. As the apnea progresses, respiratory drive increases until the threshold is passed and inspiration then occurs. If an overshoot in ventilation drives down carbon dioxide levels, the respiratory drive may again fall below the threshold for inspiration. As a result, the next apnea occurs from overcompensation of previous apnea. This ‘loop gain’ phenomenon has also been reported in OSA patients with normal kidney function.²⁵⁵ Conversion of hemodialysis patients from CHD to NHD has been associated with decreased ventilatory sensitivity to hypercapnia, which correlated with a reduction in apnea severity.²⁵⁶

Alternatively, patients with CKD and ESRD may also develop OSA through mechanisms that promote upper airway occlusion during sleep. CKD and ESRD patients are vulnerable to fluid overload,²⁵⁷⁻²⁶⁰ which predisposes them to pharyngeal narrowing as a result of interstitial

edema²⁶¹ and increased fluid volume in the neck and peripharyngeal structures.²⁶² Pharyngeal cross-sectional area has been reported to be decreased in ESRD patients compared to patients with normal kidney function.²⁶³ Further, conversion of ESRD patients from CHD to NHD increased pharyngeal cross-sectional area and this increase was postulated to be a result of improved fluid removal.²⁶⁴ Similarly, the improvement in peritoneal dialysis patients converted from CAPD to cycler-assisted NPD was associated with better fluid clearance and reduced pharyngeal narrowing, as measured by magnetic resonance imaging.²⁶⁵ Displacement of fluid from the lower limbs has been reported to increase neck circumference and pharyngeal resistance²⁶⁶ and reduce upper airway cross-sectional area.²⁶⁷ This mechanism has been reported to contribute to the pathogenesis of OSA in patients with normal kidney function,²⁶⁸ congestive heart failure,²⁶⁹ and most recently, ESRD,²⁶² where a relationship between spontaneous rostral displacement of fluid from the lower extremities and the apnea hypopnea time was reported. Further, prevention of fluid accumulation in the legs during the day reduces nocturnal displacement to the neck and attenuates OSA in non-obese sedentary men.^{270, 271} Interestingly, rostral fluid displacement increases upper airway collapsibility more in healthy non-obese men than women.²⁷² A similar relationship with gender has recently been reported in heart failure patients.²⁷³ CKD patients are also prone to aldosterone excess,¹⁹⁰ which in the setting of high salt intake, has been hypothesized to contribute to OSA through increased sodium and water retention that promote tissue edema in the upper respiratory tract, leading to airway obstruction and worsening of OSA.²⁷⁴ This is supported by studies which found plasma aldosterone levels to be correlated with OSA severity.^{275, 276} Further, administration of an aldosterone (mineralocorticoid receptor) antagonist has been reported to reduce OSA severity in subjects with resistant hypertension.²⁷⁷

Another possible cause of pharyngeal narrowing in CKD and ESRD patients is upper airway dilator muscle dysfunction due to neuropathy or myopathy associated with chronic uremia or underlying diabetes.^{45, 128} Muscle denervation²⁷⁸ and sensory myopathy²⁷⁹ have both been demonstrated in the upper airway of OSA patients with normal kidney function. These may further exacerbate the disease process in patients with CKD and ESRD.

OSA and the Kidney

OSA has been associated with abnormal renal histology, with the presence of glomerulomegaly and focal segmental glomerulosclerosis on human kidney biopsies of OSA patients.^{26, 280} Previous studies have demonstrated an association between OSA and the presence of proteinuria,²⁶⁻³⁴ while three smaller studies failed to confirm this association,³⁵⁻³⁷ likely related to small sample sizes, variability in the definition and measurement of proteinuria and albuminuria, and lack of adjustment for confounders. However, several larger more recent cross-sectional studies have demonstrated a dose-response relationship between severity of OSA,^{30, 34} nocturnal hypoxia,³² and the degree of urinary albumin excretion. OSA increases the risk of hypertension,^{9, 12, 23-25} stroke,^{14, 93-95} and cardiovascular disease,^{13, 18, 97-101, 233, 234}, all of which are important and highly prevalent complications of CKD.¹⁹⁰ OSA may also accelerate the deterioration of kidney function in patients with CKD directly through the effect of hypoxia on the kidney.^{52, 119, 120} Though cytoprotective in models of acute injury, up-regulation of hypoxia inducible factor (HIF) promotes fibrosis in experimental models of chronic renal injury.²⁸¹ The ‘*Chronic Hypoxia Hypothesis*’ suggests that chronic ischemic damage in the tubulointerstitium of the kidney is the final common pathway in CKD for the development of ESRD.^{119, 120} Alternatively, OSA may accelerate kidney function deterioration indirectly through increases in

systemic blood pressure,²⁸²⁻²⁸⁵ inflammatory cytokines,^{283, 286-289} and sympathetic nervous system activity.²⁹⁰⁻²⁹³

OSA and Altered RAS Activity

Increased RAS activity is associated with glomerular hyperfiltration (increased glomerular pressure), a precursor to kidney disease.^{53, 294, 295} The '*Brenner Hypothesis of Glomerular Hyperfiltration*' states that maladaptive glomerular hemodynamic changes exert a major influence on the factors that initiate and perpetuate disease progression.^{294, 295} These hemodynamic changes lead to glomerular hyperfiltration which in turn eventually result in progressive glomerular sclerosis and loss of kidney function.^{294, 295} OSA patients have increased glomerular filtration compared to controls.²⁹⁶ Further, indices of nocturnal hypoxemia were found to be associated with glomerular hyperfiltration.²⁹⁶ Most importantly, treatment of OSA with CPAP therapy for one week resulted in a significant reduction in glomerular filtration.²⁹⁶ The mechanism of this decrease in glomerular pressure remains unclear, however a sensitivity analysis stratifying patients based on those receiving RAS blockade therapy found that only those patients *not* receiving RAS blockade derived benefit from CPAP therapy,²⁹⁶ thus implicating a role for the RAS in the pathophysiology of OSA and kidney disease.

Multiple lines of evidence link increased activity of the RAS with both initiation and progression of renal disease.⁵³ Angiotensin II (AngII), the effector molecule of the RAS, is a potent vasoconstrictor with pro-inflammatory effects.²⁹⁷ In animal studies, chronic intermittent hypoxia (CIH) causes a progressive increase in blood pressure,^{284, 285, 290-292, 298-302} mediated in part through renal sympathetic nerve activity that acts to increase RAS activity through upregulation of AngII type-1 (AT₁) receptors.^{291, 292, 301, 302} Renal artery denervation, adrenal demedullation, and AT₁ receptor blockade with losartan ablate the increase in blood pressure in

response to CIH.^{292, 301} Further, suppression of the RAS with a high-salt diet blocks the increase in blood pressure in rats exposed to CIH by suppressing kidney renin mRNA levels.³⁰² However, kidney AT₁ receptor expression was not affected, suggesting that the local tissue RAS may have a more primary role in mediating the increase in systemic blood pressure in response to CIH.³⁰² In humans, treatment with the AT₁ receptor blocker losartan ablates the rise in blood pressure in healthy men exposed to CIH.³⁰³ Also, polymorphisms in the angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) gene modulate susceptibility to hypertension in sleep apnea.^{304, 305}

Previous studies have reported that plasma levels of AngII^{155, 306} and aldosterone¹⁵⁵ are increased in OSA patients compared to healthy controls, though one study found no acute overnight differences in plasma renin activity (PRA) and aldosterone levels between OSA patients and matched controls.³⁰⁷ The prevalence of primary hyperaldosteronism has been reported to occur in 31% hypertensive OSA patients.³⁰⁸ Plasma aldosterone levels have been correlated with OSA severity^{275, 276} and administration of an aldosterone antagonist has been reported to reduce OSA severity in subjects with resistant hypertension.²⁷⁷ In a non-controlled setting, OSA subjects demonstrated increased vascular sensitivity to intra-arterial AngII challenge (as measured by arterial forearm conductance) compared to healthy controls.³⁰⁶ Finally, we have reported increased hemodynamic and aldosterone sensitivity to intra-venous AngII infusion, as well as impaired hemodynamic recovery, in OSA patients compared to healthy controls.³⁰⁹

Summary

The state of the science can be summarized as follows: OSA and nocturnal hypoxia are highly prevalent in the CKD³⁸⁻⁴⁴ and ESRD^{38, 42, 43, 45-50} populations and are strongly associated with both hypertension^{9, 12, 19-25} and loss of kidney function.⁵² Treatment of OSA with CPAP

significantly reduces glomerular filtration.²⁹⁶ Though the mechanism remains unclear, we and others have shown that OSA is associated with altered RAS activity and sensitivity to AngII compared to healthy controls.^{155, 296, 301-306, 308, 309} Whether treatment of OSA reverses or attenuates these phenomena remains unknown, hence the rationale for the current study.

OBJECTIVES

We sought to examine the effect of CPAP therapy on the physiologic and molecular responses to AngII challenge, a well-accepted measure of RAS activity,³¹⁰⁻³²⁵ as assessed by two means:

1. The changes in blood pressure (BP) in response to AngII infusion, pre- and post-CPAP therapy, in subjects with OSA.
2. The changes in circulating RAS components (PRA and aldosterone) in response to AngII infusion, pre- and post-CPAP therapy, in subjects with OSA.

HYPOTHESES

We postulated that RAS activity is altered in OSA subjects and that there would be a normalization of RAS activity with CPAP treatment for OSA. Specifically, we hypothesized that:

1. The blood pressure response to AngII challenge would be *less* sensitive post-CPAP compared to pre-CPAP therapy.
2. The PRA and aldosterone responses would be *less* sensitive post-CPAP compared to pre-CPAP therapy.

CHAPTER TWO: METHODOLOGY

Determination of OSA

Patients referred to the Foothills Medical Centre (FMC) Sleep Centre and Healthy Heart Sleep Company, in Calgary, AB, Canada, between June 2011 and May 2012, for suspected OSA performed an unattended, overnight cardiopulmonary monitoring study at home (Remmers Sleep Recorder Model 4.2, Saga Tech Electronic, Calgary, AB, Canada). The monitor consists of an oximeter to record oxyhemoglobin saturation (SaO_2) and heart rate variability, a pressure transducer to record nasal airflow, a microphone to record snoring, and a body position sensor. The oximeter provides the data for an automated scoring algorithm, which calculates the RDI based on the number of episodes of oxyhemoglobin desaturation $\geq 4\%$ per hour of monitoring. Nocturnal oxygen saturation was sampled at 1 Hz. The Remmers Sleep Recorder has been validated by comparison to attended polysomnography.^{60, 61} We defined sleep apnea as an RDI ≥ 15 as this reflects moderate to severe sleep apnea which is likely to be clinically significant.^{60, 61} The Remmers Sleep Recorder has a sensitivity of 98% and specificity of 88% for a designation criterion of RDI ≥ 15 .⁶¹ Portable monitoring was performed following current guidelines and recommendations.⁶²⁻⁶⁴ The raw data were reviewed by a blinded sleep medicine physician (PJH) who confirmed that the estimated RDI was accurate and determined whether apnea was central (Cheyne-Stokes respiration [CSR]) or obstructive (OSA), based on the morphology of the airflow recordings. Nasal pressure recordings with a characteristic crescendo/decrecendo pattern and no evidence of airflow limitation were classified as CSR, whereas recordings without a crescendo/decrecendo pattern and with airflow limitation were classified as OSA. Subjects with CSR did not qualify for this study and were excluded from recruitment. Additionally, subjects had to demonstrate significant nocturnal hypoxia, defined as an oxyhemoglobin saturation

(SaO₂) <90% for ≥12% of monitoring, which has been previously used in the Sleep Heart Health Study.¹²

Study Subjects

Men and women, age 18-70, with moderate to severe OSA (RDI ≥15) and significant nocturnal hypoxia (SaO₂ <90% for >12% of night) as diagnosed by a sleep medicine physician, were eligible to participate in the study subjects. Subjects underwent a medical history, physical examination, and laboratory screening. Exclusion criteria for the study included cardiovascular disease (symptoms consistent with myocardial ischemia, previously documented myocardial ischemia, cardiac arrhythmias or valve abnormalities, or abnormal echocardiogram at screening), cerebrovascular disease (transient ischemic attacks or stroke), kidney disease (eGFR <60 ml/min/1.73m² using the Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration formula¹⁸⁴), uncontrolled hypertension (BP >140/90 despite maximal use of antihypertensive medications), diabetes mellitus (defined by history, use of hypoglycemic agents or a fasting glucose >7mmol/L), severe lung disease (forced expiratory volume in one second / forced vital capacity ratio <70%), age <18 or >70, current treatment for OSA, current smoking, pregnancy, use of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory medications, oral contraceptives, inability to give informed consent, or at the discretion of the investigator. The study protocol was approved by the Conjoint Health Research Ethics Board at the University of Calgary. Written informed consent was obtained from all study subjects in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Study Protocol

The study protocol is well established and we have considerable experience with the methods (Figure 1).³¹⁰⁻³²⁵ Subjects were instructed to consume >200 mmol sodium per day for 3 days before each study day to ensure maximum RAS suppression.^{302, 326} Subjects were studied in

the supine position in a warm, quiet room after an 8-hour fast. All subjects provided a second morning void spot urine for verification of diet compliance and determination of urinary sodium, potassium, and total protein excretion.³²⁷ Subjects on medications which interfere with RAS activity were asked to discontinue their medications and switched to a calcium-channel blocker (amlodopine) at sufficient doses to achieve adequate blood pressure control two weeks prior to each study day, as these agents are considered to have a neutral effect on the RAS.³⁰⁸

At 8 am, an 18-gauge peripheral venous cannula was inserted into each antecubital vein (1 for infusion and 1 for blood sampling). After a 90 minute equilibration period BP, PRA, and aldosterone were measured at baseline and in response to 2 doses of Angiotensin II (3 ng/kg/min x 30 min and 6 ng/kg/min x 30 min) as an index of RAS activity. Investigation of the systemic responses to RAS activation by exogenously administered AngII allows for the examination of basal RAS activity.^{310, 315, 316, 324} Blood samples were collected at baseline, after each AngII infusion, and after the 30 min recovery period. BP was recorded every 15 minutes by an automatic recording device (Dinamap; Critikon). Subjects were studied in the supine position using a standard cuff placed on the right arm. The mean of two readings taken by the same Registered Nurse (DYS) were recorded. Mean arterial pressure (MAP) was calculated as $1/3$ systolic BP (SBP) + $2/3$ diastolic BP (DBP).

CPAP Treatment

After completing the first study day, subjects were treated with CPAP therapy, as per the guidelines for treatment of OSA, for at least 1 month once adequate therapy has been achieved (Figure 2).⁵⁵ Adherence to CPAP therapy was monitored by electronic download of CPAP use from the unit each month. Once satisfactory CPAP adherence was achieved (defined as CPAP use for >4hrs/night for 1 month)⁵⁵ and correction of OSA and nocturnal hypoxia has been

confirmed by a repeat ambulatory cardio-pulmonary monitoring while using CPAP and reviewed by a sleep medicine physician (PJH), subjects underwent an identical study day.

Laboratory Measurements

A radioimmunoassay (RIA) was utilized for PRA (DiaSorin Clinical Assays, Stillwater, MN, USA). In brief, Angiotensin I (AngI), the primary product of PRA was generated at 37°C from endogenous renin and renin substrate at pH 6.0. The integrity of the generated AngI was maintained by inhibition of proteolytic activity using EDTA and phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride in the generation system. The accumulated AngI reflects PRA under these controlled conditions. The AngI generated was determined by RIA using competitive binding principles, where the antibody was immobilized onto the lower inner wall of coated tubes. Aldosterone was also measured using an RIA assay. AngII plasma levels were measured by standard laboratory immunoassay techniques (Quest Diagnostics; San Juan Capistrano, CA, USA). Urinary total protein excretion was determined by a turbidimetric endpoint assay using benzethonium chloride (Roche Total Protein Urine/CSF Gen. 3, Roche). Urinary sodium and potassium were determined by an indirect potentiometry assay using an ion-selective electrode (Roche Cobras Integra Sodium, Roche). Fasting glucose was determined by a hexokinase-UV assay. 25'OH Vitamin D was measured using the Liaison® 25'OH Vitamin D Total assay which uses chemiluminescent immunoassay technology for the quantitation determination of 25-hydroxyvitamin D and other hydroxyla.

Sample Size

The primary outcomes of interest outlined in this thesis are part of a study originally designed to examine the effect of CPAP therapy on RAS activity in the kidney. As such, the sample size is based on a renal outcome (filtration fraction [FF]). We calculated that 12 subjects

would be required to detect a 3% *difference* in the FF response to AngII infusion before and after OSA treatment with CPAP using 80% power and an alpha of 0.05. This estimate is based on data from Miller et al who demonstrated a difference of $3 \pm 1\%$ in the FF in response to AngII infusion after RAS blockade with the AT₁ receptor blocker (ARB) irbesartan, as compared to before RAS blockade, on a high-salt diet in healthy Caucasians.³¹⁸ Higher measures of FF can be interpreted as greater glomerular capillary pressure, which cannot be measured directly in humans, and is a precursor to glomerulosclerosis and ultimately, kidney failure.^{294, 328, 329} Importantly and underscoring the clinical importance of FF, a study of kidney transplant recipients found that for every 1% increase in FF, there was a 3% increase in having overall graft loss per year.³²⁸

Analysis

Data are reported as mean $\pm$ standard error (SE), number (percentage), or median (range), where appropriate. Our primary outcomes were the changes (Δ) in BP, PRA, and aldosterone at baseline and in response to AngII (3 ng/kg/min, 6 ng/kg/min, and recovery), as a measure of RAS activity, pre- and post-CPAP therapy for OSA. Pre- and post-CPAP comparisons were made using the Wilcoxon Sign-Rank Test (non-parametric t-test). The Friedman Test was used to ensure an appropriate vasoconstrictor response to AngII infusion was observed on each study day. Missing data were carried forwards or backwards, assuming no change, where appropriate. All statistical analyses were performed with statistical software package SPSS V.17.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA) and were 2-tailed with a significance level of 0.05.

CHAPTER THREE: RESULTS

Study Enrollment

Twelve OSA subjects completed the study and were included in the final analyses. One subject ingested 1 dose of the ARB candesartan the morning of the first study day; this subject was studied in an identical fashion post-CPAP therapy to allow for comparison of pre-post CPAP results in an identical setting. This subject was included in the primary analyses, but excluded in a sensitivity analysis.

Baseline Characteristics

Subject characteristics are presented in Table 1. Twelve newly diagnosed (10 men and 2 post-menopausal women; mean [SE] age 51 [33, 68] years) OSA subjects ($RDI \geq 15$) with nocturnal hypoxia ($SaO_2 < 90\%$ for $>12\%$ of night) were recruited into the study. All had BP $<140/90$ mmHg (5 subjects on antihypertensive medication) and were free of RAS-interfering medications. All subjects were non-diabetic, non-smoking, and in high-salt balance, a state of maximal RAS suppression, as indicated by urinary sodium excretion. Additionally, all subjects had normal kidney function ($eGFR \geq 60$ mL/min/1.73m²) and urinary total protein excretion (<200 mg/day) as defined by National Kidney Foundation guidelines,¹ with the exception of 1 subject who had increased urinary total protein excretion (UTPE, 341 mg/day).

As anticipated, all subjects demonstrated significant changes in all indices of blood pressure ($p < 0.001$), PRA ($p < 0.001$), and aldosterone ($p < 0.001$) in response to AngII challenge compared to baseline values (pre-CPAP therapy).

CPAP Therapy

All subjects responded to CPAP therapy. CPAP treatment (median [range], 94 [62, 260] days) reduced the RDI and improved indices of nocturnal hypoxia (Table 1). A download of

CPAP compliance for the last 30 days prior to the post-treatment study day revealed that CPAP was used $94\pm4\%$ of nights (mean [SE], $79\pm7\%$ with usage >4 hours/night), with an average nightly usage of 6.3 ± 0.6 hours, indicating adequate CPAP compliance.

Pre- vs. Post-CPAP Therapy

Baseline Characteristics

There were no differences in terms of fasting glucose, Vitamin D, or urinary sodium and potassium excretion post-CPAP therapy (Table 1). CPAP therapy resulted in a large reduction in UTPE in all subjects (Figure 3). There was also a non-significant reduction in baseline heart rate and a non-significant increase in BMI post-CPAP.

As anticipated, all subjects demonstrated significant changes in all indices of blood pressure ($p<0.001$), PRA ($p<0.001$), and aldosterone ($p<0.001$) in response to AngII challenge compared to baseline values (post-CPAP therapy).

Blood Pressure

Changes in baseline BP are reported in Table 1. CPAP treatment reduced baseline MAP and DBP. There was also a non-significant reduction in baseline SBP.

Study subjects' BP responses to AngII challenge are reported in Table 2. Study subjects demonstrated increased MAP sensitivity to AngII at 15 minutes post CPAP-therapy (Figure 4). There were also non-significant increases in MAP sensitivity to AngII at 30 and 45 minutes post-CPAP therapy. There were no differences in the MAP sensitivity to AngII at 60 minutes or after the recovery period. The MAP response was driven primarily by the DBP response to AngII, which followed a similar pattern (Figure 5). There were also non-significant increases in SBP sensitivity to AngII infusion at 15 and 45 minutes post-CPAP therapy, though there were no differences in sensitivity at 30 and 60 minutes or after the recovery period (Figure 6).

Circulating RAS Components

Baseline circulating RAS components pre- and post-CPAP therapy are reported in Table 1. CPAP treatment decreased circulating aldosterone levels in 11 out of 12 subjects (Figure 7), but did not alter circulating AngII levels. There was also a non-significant decrease in PRA (Figure 8) post-CPAP therapy, which occurred in 9 out of 12 subjects. Two subjects had large increases in PRA, while 1 subject remained unchanged. Interestingly, hypoxia was not fully corrected in these 3 subjects, though the hypoxia pattern was noted to have changed from an intermittent to a more sustained pattern.

Changes in PRA and aldosterone sensitivity to AngII are reported in Table 2. There were no significant differences in PRA response to AngII infusion after CPAP therapy, though the PRA responses did appear to be blunted post-CPAP therapy (Figure 9). Conversely, there were no significant differences in the aldosterone sensitivity to AngII after CPAP therapy, though the aldosterone response did appear to be more sensitive post-CPAP (Figure 10). There was also a non-significant blunting in the aldosterone recovery post-CPAP therapy.

Sensitivity Analyses

A sensitivity analysis excluding the subject who violated the study protocol by taking candesartan did not alter our results. Exclusion of the two female subjects did not alter our primary findings, though the non-significant increases in BP sensitivity to AngII at 30 minutes (post-CPAP therapy) became significant (MAP, $p=0.022$; SBP, $p=0.032$; DBP, $p=0.036$). Similarly, the non-significant blunting in the aldosterone recovery post-CPAP therapy also became significant ($p=0.019$). A sensitivity analysis removing the subject who still demonstrated significant nocturnal hypoxia post-CPAP therapy ($\text{SaO}_2 < 90\%$ for 31% of night) resulted in decreased baseline PRA ($p=0.050$) and increased BP sensitivity to AngII at 30 minutes (MAP,

p=0.031; SBP, p=0.119; DBP, p=0.021). There was also a non-significant increase in BP sensitivity to AngII at 45 minutes (MAP, p=0.11; SBP, p=0.083; DBP, p=0.091). Additional exclusion of the 2 subjects in whom hypoxia was partially corrected (9.2% and 8.3%) resulted in further decreases in baseline SBP (p=0.012) and PRA (p=0.021) and significant increases in BP sensitivity to AngII at 45 minutes (MAP, p=0.038; SBP, p=0.024; DBP, p=0.065). Our other findings remained unchanged with exclusion of the subjects with partially corrected hypoxia. Finally, exclusion of the 5 subjects with controlled hypertension did not significantly alter our results.

CHAPTER FOUR: DISCUSSION

Primary Findings

We examined RAS activity in humans with OSA before and after CPAP therapy. To our knowledge this is first study to examine the effect of CPAP treatment on the hemodynamic and circulating RAS component responses to an AngII challenge, a well-accepted indirect measure of RAS activity.³¹⁰⁻³²⁵ Our primary findings were that treatment of OSA with CPAP resulted in: (1) decreased baseline blood pressure and increased hemodynamic sensitivity to AngII; (2) decreased PRA (hypoxia corrected subjects only) and aldosterone levels at baseline, but did not affect PRA or aldosterone sensitivity to AngII; and (3) decreased urinary protein excretion. These findings suggest that RAS activity is down-regulated in OSA subjects treated with CPAP, supporting a role for the RAS in mediating OSA-induced hypertension in humans.

Treatment of OSA with CPAP and the RAS

Several studies have examined the effect of CPAP therapy on components of the RAS. Follenius et al reported that one night of CPAP therapy increased PRA and aldosterone levels.³³⁰ Saarelainen et al reported a decrease in plasma aldosterone but no change in renin in 11 male hypertensive subjects without other co-morbidities after 3 months of CPAP treatment.³³¹ Meston et al conducted a randomized control trial in 101 male subjects with OSA.³³² Subjects were randomized to therapeutic or sham CPAP. The authors reported no differences in renin levels post-CPAP therapy but equivalent increases in aldosterone levels after 1 month.³³² Moller et al administered CPAP to 13 OSA patients for 14 months and found no statistically significant reductions in renin or angiotensin II.¹⁵⁵ However, CPAP therapy reduced BP, and the reduction in BP was correlated with a decrease in both plasma renin and AngII concentrations.¹⁵⁵ Svatikova et al compared aldosterone and renin levels in 21 OSA patients without co-existent

cardiovascular disease to those of similarly obese healthy control subjects.³⁰⁷ They authors found that neither OSA nor CPAP treatment acutely affected overnight plasma aldosterone or renin levels.³⁰⁷ Finally, the forearm vasoconstrictor response to an intra-arterial AngII infusion has been reported to be increased in normotensive patients with OSA.³⁰⁶ These studies differ with varying sample sizes and intervention periods, and are limited because they included only male subjects, did not quantify or examine the hypoxia profile of their subjects, and most importantly, a majority did not control for salt intake, kidney function, or other factors known to affect the RAS. Hence, the mechanistic relationship between OSA and the RAS in patients without co-morbidities aside from OSA remains unclear.

Our study addresses several of the limitations of these previous studies. We included women, subjects with significant nocturnal hypoxia, and controlled for factors known to affect the RAS. Previous studies examining the effect of CPAP therapy on BP have shown different results ranging from no significant changes³³³⁻³³⁶ to almost a 10 mmHg decrease,^{114, 139, 140, 144-156} with meta-analyses reporting a decrease in BP of -1.4 to -2.5 mmHg.³³⁷⁻³³⁹ The large variation in findings likely reflects differences in baseline hypertension, use of antihypertensive medications, treatment length, CPAP adherence, presence of co-morbidities, and the severity of OSA and/or hypoxia. We observed a large BP reduction (-6 mmHg for MAP, SBP, and DBP) similar to several previous studies,^{146, 151, 154, 155} which likely reflects the healthiness of our study population. We also observed reductions in baseline PRA, aldosterone, and UTPE levels with CPAP treatment, though the reduction in PRA was only present in those subjects in whom the hypoxia component was corrected. We have previously reported that OSA subjects have increased hemodynamic and aldosterone sensitivity to infused AngII, as well as impaired hemodynamic recovery, compared to healthy controls.³⁰⁹ Consequently, we hypothesized that the

hemodynamic and circulating RAS component responses to an AngII infusion would be less sensitive following CPAP therapy. However, contrary to our hypotheses, we found that the hemodynamic sensitivity to infused AngII was enhanced with CPAP therapy. Further, despite reductions in baseline circulating PRA and aldosterone levels post-CPAP therapy, OSA subjects treated with CPAP demonstrated a similar circulating PRA and aldosterone sensitivity to infused AngII. However, the shifts in the PRA and aldosterone response curves are likely beneficial as they minimize the potentially harmful effects of an activated RAS.

Mechanisms of Action

Intermittent hypoxia is thought to lead to increased oxidative stress, systemic inflammation, and sympathetic activation, which in turn induce endothelial dysfunction.^{136, 183} Accordingly, there are several mechanisms which may account for the increased hemodynamic sensitivity to infused AngII in OSA subjects. Increased hemodynamic responsiveness to AngII may be the result of alterations and vascular remodelling of the arterial wall.³⁰⁶ In particular, an increased wall-to-lumen ratio generates a greater force and thus enhanced resistance increase at a greater concentration of vasoconstrictor.³⁴⁰ Nocturnal BP surges³⁴¹ inherent to OSA³⁴² and increased permanent or nocturnal release of norepinephrine,³⁴³ thromboxane A₂,³⁴⁴ and/or endothelin³⁴⁵ may promote long-term vascular growth resulting in greater hemodynamic sensitivity in OSA subjects. Animal studies demonstrating increased RAS activity as a consequence of increased sympathetic tone during CIH support an increased growth-promotive influence on the vessel walls in OSA.³⁴⁶

The greater hemodynamic sensitivity during AngII infusion may also reflect increased sensitivity of the vessel walls to vasoconstrictors at the cellular level.³⁰⁶ Altered endogenous RAS activity seems the most likely explanation for our findings. Animal studies have

demonstrated that exposure to CIH causes an increase in BP mediated through sympathetic activation which acts to increase RAS activity through upregulation of the AT₁ receptors.^{291, 292, 301, 302} Indeed, altered levels of any of the individual components of the circulating and local tissue RAS, including PRA, AngII, aldosterone, the AT₁ and mineralocorticoid receptors, angiotensin-converting enzyme, the initial substrate angiotensinogen, and/or other components of the RAS could promote a greater hemodynamic sensitivity to AngII. The finding of augmented hemodynamic sensitivity to infused AngII has been reported previously in users of the oral contraceptive (OC).³⁴⁷ Ahmed et al found the hemodynamic response to infused AngII was significantly augmented in OC users compared to non-users despite similar baseline blood pressures.³⁴⁷ This was associated with increased AT₁ receptor mRNA expression, suggesting that AT₁ receptor downregulation was not the mechanism responsible for the maintenance of normal hemodynamic function in OC users.³⁴⁷ Further, our subject who ingested candesartan demonstrated a response to AngII despite AT₁ receptor blockade, providing evidence for AT₁ receptor up-regulation in humans with OSA. Alternatively, parts of the constrictive action of AngII could be explained by augmented pre-synaptic release of norepinephrine³⁴⁸ or other vasoconstrictors, such as free oxygen radicals,³⁴⁹ reduced reuptake of catecholamines,³⁵⁰ and facilitation of the vasoconstrictive effect of sympathetic activation.³⁵¹ Thus, enhanced vasoconstriction in OSA subjects is likely a consequence of increased sympathetic tone, a well-known characteristic of OSA.^{352, 353}

Another possible mechanism for the augmented hemodynamic response to AngII observed in OSA subjects is dysfunction of the nitric oxide (NO) system. AngII-induced vasoconstriction is normally attenuated by the concomitant release of NO via shear stress-dependent and -independent pathways.³⁴⁹ Therefore, enhanced vasoconstriction during AngII

infusion in OSA may also be the result of reduced coactivation of endothelial NO synthesis or increased NO degradation accompanying the activation of NO synthesis.³⁰⁶ In a follow-up to the previously described OC user study, Cherney et al found that the hemodynamic response to L-arginine infusion was blunted in OC users compared to non-users, suggesting increased NO system activity in OC users, and that further delivery of the substrate for endothelial NO synthase (eNOS) could not overcome the hemodynamic effects of ongoing OC-induced RAS activation.³⁵⁴ This finding was supported by tissue eNOS mRNA levels.³⁵⁴ OSA subjects have been reported to have reduced levels eNOS and more importantly, CPAP treatment has been reported to increase eNOS levels.¹⁷⁰ Alternatively, reduced recruitment of other counter-regulatory vasodilators may be the result of a diminished effect of AngII type-2 (AT₂) receptors,³⁵⁵ which have been proposed to mediate NO release,³⁵⁶ aortic but not vascular cyclic GMP production,^{357, 358} and vasodilation.³⁵⁹ Downregulation of AT₂ receptors or disruption of post-AT₂ receptor signal transduction is another possible mechanism explaining the increased hemodynamic sensitivity in OSA.³⁰⁶ Further, the release of norepinephrine, which is increased in OSA,^{343, 352, 360} downregulates AT₂ receptor expression in cardiac myocytes,³⁶¹ providing some support for this mechanism. Finally, the net effect of endogenous vasodilators, such as NO, on the extent of induced vasoconstriction by vasoconstrictors, such as AngII, may be nullified by prevailing neurohumoral and/or paracrine vasoconstrictor overweight.³⁰⁶ As such, the increased sensitivity to AngII in OSA may be the result of a shifted balance between endogenous vasoconstrictors^{345, 352, 360} and vasodilators³⁴⁹ to a higher level of activity, exhausting the ability of vasodilatory mechanisms to counteract further vasoconstrictive challenges.³⁶²

It is likely that each of the aforementioned mechanisms have some role in mediating the altered RAS activity observed in OSA subjects; though it remains unclear which mechanisms are

the most important. Contrary to our hypothesis, we found that CPAP therapy increased the hemodynamic sensitivity to infused AngII. This occurred despite decreases in baseline BP and circulating levels of PRA and aldosterone, though circulating levels of PRA and aldosterone may not necessarily reflect local tissue RAS levels.³⁰² A high-salt diet is known to suppress RAS activity to basal levels.^{302, 326} However, in animals exposed to CIH, kidney AT₁ receptor expression has been shown to be unaffected by high-salt diet, suggesting that the local tissue RAS may be more important in mediating systemic BP.³⁰² Our results indicate that CPAP therapy downregulates many components of the RAS, though whether AT₁ receptor expression is affected remains unclear. We speculate that the number of AT₁ receptors remained unchanged post-CPAP therapy and that a decrease in the levels of various RAS components may have left more AT₁ receptors available for activation. Consequently, when AngII was infused, there was an augmented hemodynamic response. Our subject who ingested candesartan demonstrated an augmented hemodynamic response post-CPAP therapy, despite AT₁ receptor blockade and decreased circulating PRA and aldosterone levels, providing support for this theory. This effect could also be the result of a change in some other unmeasured or unknown component of the RAS or vasculature. The role of the mineralocorticoid (aldosterone) receptor in OSA also remains unclear, though there is some evidence suggesting that it may be up-regulated in OSA.²⁷⁵⁻²⁷⁷ Certainly, one could speculate that a similar mechanism to that described for the AT₁ receptor above may also apply to the mineralocorticoid receptor. We found no difference in the aldosterone sensitivity to infused AngII, though there was a non-significant impairment in the aldosterone recovery. This implies that although basal circulating aldosterone levels were reduced by CPAP therapy, adrenal gland sensitivity to AngII was not affected, resulting in a similar increase in circulating aldosterone levels. The impaired recovery of circulating

aldosterone supports the theory of mineralocorticoid receptor downregulation with CPAP therapy. In response to AngII, the reduced number of receptors would become saturated with the excess aldosterone released by the adrenal gland, resulting in a delayed usage of the accumulated aldosterone and therefore an impaired recovery. Conversely, circulating PRA demonstrated a non-significant blunting and improved recovery to infused AngII, though this was likely due to the decrease in baseline PRA. We also observed no difference in the hemodynamic recovery to infused AngII post-CPAP therapy, despite there being an augmented sensitivity, though numerically the recovery did appear to be improved with CPAP treatment. This suggests that there was an improvement in some vasodilatory compensatory mechanism, possibly mediated through the NO system or AT₂ receptor, though our study was not designed to assess these mechanisms. Finally, it is important to remember that subjects with OSA are often unknowingly exposed to the deleterious consequences of OSA for years. It therefore would not be surprising that in response to CPAP therapy there is ongoing vascular remodelling and that our intervention period was likely not sufficiently long enough to capture all of these important changes.

Clinical Implications

Urinary Protein Excretion

The reduction in urinary protein excretion after CPAP therapy also merits discussion. Several previous studies have demonstrated an association between OSA and/or nocturnal hypoxia and the presence of proteinuria,²⁶⁻³⁴ though three smaller studies failed to confirm this association.³⁵⁻³⁷ At present only two small case studies have examined the effect of CPAP on proteinuria.^{27, 28} Both have reported significant reductions and a reversal in proteinuria.^{27, 28} We extend these findings by showing a reduction in UTPE in all 12 subjects after 1 month of adequate CPAP therapy. Proteinuria, even within the normal range, is a powerful predictor and

potential contributor to cardiovascular events,¹⁹²⁻²⁰⁴ CKD progression,^{198, 199} ESRD,^{198, 199, 205, 206} and all-cause mortality,^{193, 195, 197-199, 202, 207} though the role of proteinuria and its primary component albuminuria in the pathophysiology of these conditions remains elusive. Numerous studies have suggested that only negligible amounts of albuminuria should be considered normal.^{192, 196, 203} Reductions in albuminuria and proteinuria by means of RAS blockade have been associated with improved renal³⁶³⁻³⁶⁶ and cardiovascular^{194, 201, 203} outcomes, though it remains unclear if albuminuria and proteinuria are surrogate endpoints for cardiorenal disease and thus potential therapeutic targets or simply biomarkers.³⁶⁷ We have previously reported increased UTPE, within the normal range, to be associated with up-regulated vascular RAS activity and a blunted DBP response to infused AngII, in healthy humans.³¹³ Interestingly, in the present study, we observed a reduction in UTPE and an augmented DBP response to AngII following CPAP, further supporting the relationship between UTPE and the RAS. AngII, the effector molecule of the RAS, has pro-inflammatory effects.²⁹⁷ This increased inflammation, coupled with the augmented intraglomerular pressure and resulting increased local leakage of albumin³⁶⁸ attributed to up-regulated RAS activity, may contribute to widespread vascular permeability even in healthy subjects,³⁶⁹⁻³⁷¹ underscoring the plausibility of this pathophysiological relationship. Further, the AT₁ receptor has been implicated in pathways known to cause endothelial damage such as synthesis of interleukin-6³⁷² and generation of reactive oxygen species,³⁷³ which damage the glomerular filtration barrier. Conversely, urinary albumin has been demonstrated to stimulate the RAS in proximal tubular cells.³⁷⁴ Alternatively, the observed reduction in UTPE may be a systemic or renal hemodynamic effect, with the reduction in UTPE being a result of a decrease in blood pressure or glomerular filtration.

Regardless of the mechanism, a reduction in UTPE occurred in all OSA subjects treated with CPAP and should be an important area of future study.

Blood Pressure

Hypertension is the most important risk factor contributing to mortality worldwide,³⁷⁵ though its determinants remain poorly understood. OSA is an independent risk factor for the development of hypertension.^{9, 12, 23-25} During the OSA cycle BP can vary by more than 50 mmHg in a period of 10 to 15 seconds.³⁷⁶ Every 20 mmHg increase in SBP (10 mmHg increase in DBP) doubles the risk of cardiovascular disease.³⁷⁷ Among patients less than 65 years old, there is a progressive increase in the risk of stroke and coronary disease with increasing BP.³⁷⁸ In individuals over age 65, the risk continues to increase with rising SBP, but a reversal occurs with the DBP; the lower the DBP at a given SBP, the greater the risk.³⁷⁹ Consequently, an increased pulse pressure (PP, SBP-DBP) is associated with an increased risk for adverse events.³⁷⁹ The Framingham Heart Study found DBP to be the strongest predictor of coronary heart disease in patients <50 years of age.³⁸⁰ Further, age 50 to 59 years was a transition period when SBP, DBP, and PP were comparable predictors, and from 60 years of age on, DBP was negatively related to coronary heart disease risk so that PP became superior predictor to SBP.³⁸⁰ Given that the average age of our study population was 51, with a majority of subjects being <60 years of age, it is perhaps not unexpected that the most significant hemodynamic changes post-CPAP therapy were with DBP in our study population. Antihypertensive therapy has been associated with a 35-45% reduction in stroke, 20-25% decrease in myocardial infarction, and >50% reduction in heart failure.^{381, 382} In 17 control trials, a 5-6 mmHg reduction in DBP has been associated with a 16% reduction in the number of coronary events and a 40% reduction of stroke.³⁸² Further, a 10 year 12 mmHg decrease in BP results in the prevention of 1 death for every 11 patients treated.³⁸³

Aldosterone

There is growing recognition of the consequences of increased aldosterone secretion and its contributions to hypertension.^{274, 276, 277, 308, 384-388} Treatment with aldosterone (mineralocorticoid receptor) antagonists reduces morbidity, mortality, and hospitalizations in patients with hypertension and systolic heart failure.³⁸⁴⁻³⁸⁶ In recognition of these findings, the most recent Canadian Hypertension Education Program guidelines have recommended the use of mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists in addition to traditional RAS-interfering medications in patients with hypertension and systolic heart failure.³⁸⁹ The results from the present study suggest that CPAP therapy may also be effective at lowering circulating aldosterone levels.

OSA and CPAP

OSA increases the risk of hypertension,^{9, 12, 23-25} stroke,^{14, 93-96} cardiovascular disease,^{13, 18, 97-102} and both cardiovascular¹⁰⁵⁻¹⁰⁷ and all-cause mortality.^{105, 107-111} OSA also causes excessive daytime sleepiness, inattention, fatigue, and impairment of sleep quality,^{55, 72} which in turn impair daytime and neurocognitive function,⁷³⁻⁷⁶ diminish quality of life,⁷⁷ and increase the likelihood of errors,^{73, 74} motor vehicle⁷⁸⁻⁸⁵ and occupational^{86, 87} accidents. CPAP therapy reduces respiratory events and hypoxia during sleep,^{135, 137-139} daytime sleepiness,^{75, 139-143} blood pressure,^{114, 139, 140, 144-156} hospitalizations,¹⁵⁷ MetS,¹¹⁴ cardiovascular events,^{13, 106, 158} motor vehicle accidents,^{79, 80} and mortality,^{106, 107, 159, 160} while concomitantly improving quality of life^{75, 139} and cognition.^{75, 161} CPAP therapy is cost-effective^{80, 162-166} and the number needed to treat to prevent 1 cardiovascular event in 10 years is 3.5.¹⁵⁸ Importantly, discontinuing CPAP for even 1 night may mitigate the benefits of CPAP.^{139, 181-183} However, approximately 30% of patients with OSA do not tolerate CPAP^{390, 391} and an even higher number do not use their CPAP for the entire night.^{182, 392-398} Approximately 46-83% of patients are defined as non-adherent

when adherence is defined as >4 hours of use per night.³⁹³ There is no consensus regarding the duration of nightly usage that is necessary to experience the maximum benefits of CPAP, though several studies have suggested that usage >6 hours per night is necessary for optimal benefit.^{142,}

143, 161

CPAP versus RAS Blockade

Given that OSA is associated with altered RAS activity,^{155, 296, 301-306, 308, 309} our present finding that RAS activity is down-regulated with CPAP therapy, and the widespread issues with CPAP tolerance and adherence,^{182, 390-398} the option to treat OSA patients with a RAS-inhibiting medication may be worthwhile. Currently, it remains unclear whether CPAP therapy or RAS blockade is the most beneficial to patients with OSA. Administration of the aldosterone antagonist spironolactone for 8 weeks has been reported to attenuate OSA severity by ~50% in subjects with resistant hypertension.²⁷⁷ However, RAS blockade does not mitigate the daytime symptoms of OSA, whereas CPAP therapy effectively reduces daytime sleepiness^{75, 139-143} and improves both cognitive function^{75, 161} and quality of life.^{75, 139} Our study subject who ingested candesartan provides additional insight. This subject was found to have large reductions in BP, PRA, aldosterone, and UTPE post-CPAP therapy, while demonstrating increased hemodynamic sensitivity to infused AngII, suggesting that CPAP treatment provides an additional benefit beyond RAS blockade. This concept is further supported by a randomized control crossover trial of 23 subjects with untreated hypertension and OSA.¹⁵² Subjects were randomized to the ARB valsartan (160 mg/day) or CPAP therapy.¹⁵² Though, there were significant reductions in mean 24-hour BP with both CPAP and valsartan treatment, valsartan induced a fourfold higher decrease in mean 24-hour BP than CPAP.¹⁵² More importantly, an extended trial of treatment that combined the 2 therapies showed further significant reductions in BP,¹⁵² highlighting the

potential benefits of dual therapy. Finally, it is important to consider cost when contemplating whether to utilize CPAP or RAS blockade therapy, as treatment of OSA will likely be a lifelong requirement. CPAP therapy has a higher initial set-up cost, though this need only be done once, whereas RAS-interfering medications have lower costs but prescriptions require frequent refills.. Consequently, RAS blockade therapy may result in higher long-term costs. Based on the evidence, CPAP therapy should be used when possible to treat OSA.^{54, 55, 59, 127, 135} In patients where CPAP treatment is not a possibility, consideration should be given to prescribing an RAS-interfering medication.²⁷⁷ Concomitant CPAP and RAS blockade therapy is likely of further benefit¹⁵² and will be an important area of future study.

Strengths and Limitations

Our study has several strengths. We utilized a well-accepted measure of RAS activity³¹⁰⁻³²⁵ and controlled for factors known to affect the RAS. All subjects had newly diagnosed and untreated moderate to severe OSA with marked nocturnal hypoxia, suggesting that any of the effects of OSA and CPAP therapy on the RAS should have been most evident in our study population. We included only subjects with a BP <140/90 who had no other coexisting diseases and were in general free of RAS-interfering medications. The pre-post study design allows us to comment on causality and to assess the effect of CPAP on RAS activity independent of age, gender, obesity, and other residual confounders, as these factors should have been identical on both study visits. Further, we included women and subjects with controlled hypertension, thereby increasing the generalizability and clinical implications of our results.

Notwithstanding these strengths, our study has limitations. First, our study sample was limited to OSA subjects who were non-diabetic, non-smoking, with BP<140/90, normal renal function, and the absence of co-morbid disease, limiting the generalizability of our study results

to OSA populations with a greater burden of co-morbid disease. However, by studying a healthier population of OSA subjects, we aimed to examine the impact of CPAP therapy on BP and circulating RAS components without any confounding factors. Further, by design, we included only subjects with both moderate to severe OSA and significant nocturnal hypoxia. Consequently, it remains unclear whether it is the treatment of apneas or intermittent hypoxia that is responsible for our findings. Certainly, our sensitivity analyses excluding the subjects with partially corrected hypoxia suggests that treatment of intermittent hypoxia provides additional benefit to RAS activity. Second, we attempted to minimize the effect of sample size and intraindividual variability by utilizing a homogenous study group and careful pre-study design. We ensured that all participants were ingesting similar amounts of salt to ensure maximum RAS suppression^{302, 326} and that all subjects were free RAS-interfering medications and hormone replacement therapy. In addition, all subjects were studied at the same time of the day, while resting in the supine position in a warm, quiet room after an 8-hour fast. We also enrolled healthy subjects free of kidney disease, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and smoking, as these conditions can influence RAS activity. Third, as it is not possible to measure vascular RAS activity directly in humans, we utilized the well-accepted method of indirectly measuring the RAS in humans by observing the response to AngII challenge.³¹⁰⁻³²⁵ Fourth, a spot urine was used for determination of sodium, potassium, creatinine, and protein excretion in place of the gold standard 24-hour urine sample; however, even in the most careful of research settings, 24-hour urine collections are prone to error and there is excellent correlation between spot morning urine samples and 24-hour urine collection for estimation of albumin and protein excretion.³⁹⁹ Fifth, we used portable monitoring in place of polysomnography for diagnosing OSA and evaluating CPAP treatment. However, portable monitoring was performed in a population at

high risk for OSA following current guidelines and recommendations⁶²⁻⁶⁴ and analyzed by a sleep medicine physician. Finally, the length of the treatment period was likely insufficient to demonstrate the full benefits of CPAP therapy on RAS activity as OSA patients are often unknowingly exposed to the deleterious consequences of OSA for years. Though given that we did find an improvement in RAS activity, this suggests that changes in RAS activity in response to CPAP occur as early as 1 month and are likely ongoing.

Future Directions

There are several aspects of this research which merit future study. It would be interesting to examine the long term effects of CPAP therapy on the RAS and kidney function, as vascular remodelling is likely ongoing. With a larger sample size, it would be interesting to conduct stratifications based on age, gender, and hypertension status to examine whether these entities modify the effect of CPAP therapy on the RAS. We have also been collecting samples for the determination of renal hemodynamics, which will eventually provide direct insight as to the effect of CPAP therapy on kidney function and the renal RAS. It also remains unclear whether it is apneas per se, hypoxia, or both of these factors together that are responsible for the altered RAS activity in OSA. This could be examined by studying subjects with OSA but no hypoxia or subjects with hypoxia but no OSA. Further, it would be interesting to utilize a healthy human model to examine the effect of intermittent hypoxia exposure on the RAS. Alternatively, one could examine the effects of other models of acute and chronic hypoxia on the RAS, such as the hypoxia experienced at altitude or with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. The effect of supplemental oxygen therapy, which may be better tolerated, could be an alternative to CPAP therapy, though the effect of supplemental oxygen on the RAS and kidney has not been studied to date. The role of the NO and AT₂ receptor pathways in OSA is another area requiring further

study. Finally, the role of RAS blockade in both OSA and CPAP therapy remains unclear and requires further elucidation. Given the present findings, future studies should be undertaken to examine the acute and chronic effects of RAS blockade in OSA subjects in the context of concomitant CPAP therapy.

Conclusions

RAS activity is altered in OSA and improved by CPAP therapy. In OSA subjects who were otherwise well, we found CPAP therapy to down-regulate RAS activity through decreases in blood pressure, circulating RAS components, and urinary protein excretion, and increased hemodynamic sensitivity to infused AngII. These findings are important given the increasing prevalence of OSA and high impact on cardiovascular morbidity^{13, 18, 97-102} and mortality,¹⁰⁵⁻¹⁰⁷ quality of life,⁷⁷ and health care costs.^{14, 96, 102, 111, 124, 133} OSA represents a significant burden to the health-care system that can be effectively treated with CPAP therapy.^{54, 55, 59, 127, 135} Concomitant RAS-inhibition and CPAP therapy may also provide additional benefit to patients with OSA. Further studies are required to confirm our findings and to better elucidate the role of the RAS in the development of OSA-mediated hypertension, cardiovascular, and kidney disease.

Table 1: Baseline Characteristics

Parameter	Pre-CPAP	Post-CPAP	P-value
Age, years	51±3	-	-
Gender, N (% Male)	10 (83)	-	-
Race, N (% Caucasian)	7 (58)	-	-
BMI, kg/m ²	32±1	33±1	0.075
eGFR, ml/min/1.73m ²	99±4	-	-
Fasting glucose, mmol/L	4.7±0.2	4.7±0.1	0.88
25'OH Vitamin D, nmol/L	65±7	72±7	0.27
Heart Rate, bpm	69±3	65±3	0.11
Urinary Na ⁺ , mmol/day	367±27	369±54	0.31
Urinary K ⁺ , mmol/day	87±3	90±7	0.81
UTPE, mg/day [†]	69 (39, 341)	48 (22, 204)	0.002
RDI, hr ⁻¹	58.6±5.4	4.7±0.8	0.002
SaO ₂ <90, %	35.2±5.1	5.0±2.6	0.002
Mean SaO ₂ , %	90.2±0.6	92.7±0.4	0.002
Minimum SaO ₂ , %	73.8±1.5	85.3±1.3	0.002
MAP, mmHg [*]	95±2	89±2	0.019
SBP, mmHg [*]	129±3	123±2	0.071
DBP, mmHg [*]	78±2	72±2	0.013
PRA, ng/L/s [†]	0.28 (0.17, 6.03)	0.24 (0.01, 4.33)	0.18
AngII, ng/L [†]	16 (12, 48)	16 (12, 73)	0.73
Aldosterone, pmol/L	179±27	115±14	0.006

* mean of 2 readings

[†] median (range)

AngII, angiotensin II; BMI, body mass index; CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; MAP, mean arterial pressure; PRA, plasma renin activity; RDI, respiratory disturbance index; SaO₂, oxyhemoglobin saturation; SBP, systolic blood pressure; UTPE, urinary total protein excretion

Table 2: Responses to Angiotensin II Infusion

Parameter	Pre-CPAP	Post-CPAP	P-value
ΔMAP, mmHg*			
15 min	10 $\pm$ 2	15 $\pm$ 2	0.019
30 min	11 $\pm$ 3	14 $\pm$ 3	0.12
45 min	17 $\pm$ 2	21 $\pm$ 3	0.12
60 min	16 $\pm$ 3	17 $\pm$ 3	0.88
90 min	4 $\pm$ 1	3 $\pm$ 2	0.61
ΔSBP, mmHg*			
15 min	15 $\pm$ 4	19 $\pm$ 4	0.18
30 min	17 $\pm$ 5	18 $\pm$ 4	0.37
45 min	23 $\pm$ 4	27 $\pm$ 5	0.077
60 min	22 $\pm$ 4	24 $\pm$ 5	0.67
90 min	10 $\pm$ 3	5 $\pm$ 3	0.33
ΔDBP, mmHg*			
15 min	7 $\pm$ 1	13 $\pm$ 2	0.009
30 min	8 $\pm$ 2	12 $\pm$ 2	0.084
45 min	14 $\pm$ 2	17 $\pm$ 3	0.099
60 min	13 $\pm$ 3	14 $\pm$ 2	0.88
90 min	1 $\pm$ 1	2 $\pm$ 1	0.72
ΔPRA, ng/L/s			
30 min	-0.13 $\pm$ 0.03	-0.10 $\pm$ 0.03	0.27
60 min	-0.23 $\pm$ 0.08	-0.17 $\pm$ 0.06	0.24
90 min	-0.13 $\pm$ 0.02	-0.12 $\pm$ 0.03	0.58
ΔAldosterone, pmol/L			
30 min	154 $\pm$ 32	165 $\pm$ 36	0.53
60 min	221 $\pm$ 43	233 $\pm$ 34	0.53
90 min	124 $\pm$ 43	158 $\pm$ 43	0.084

*mean of 2 readings

CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; MAP, mean arterial pressure; PRA, plasma renin activity; SBP, systolic blood pressure

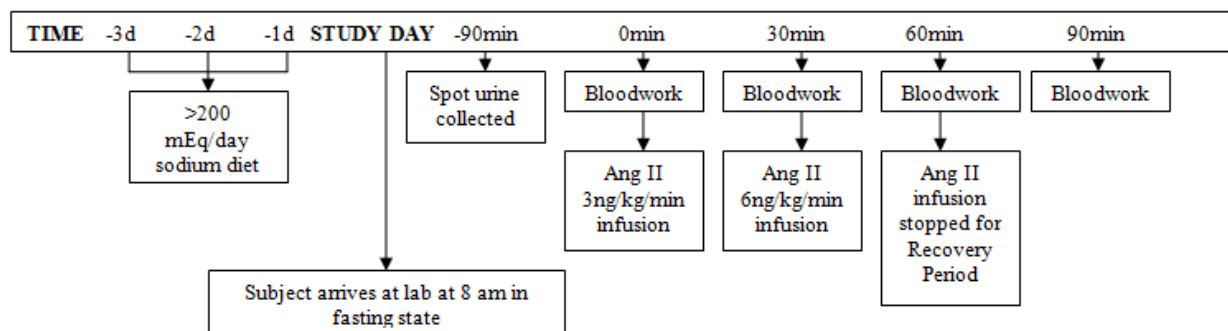


Figure 1: Study Day Protocol
AngII, angiotensin II

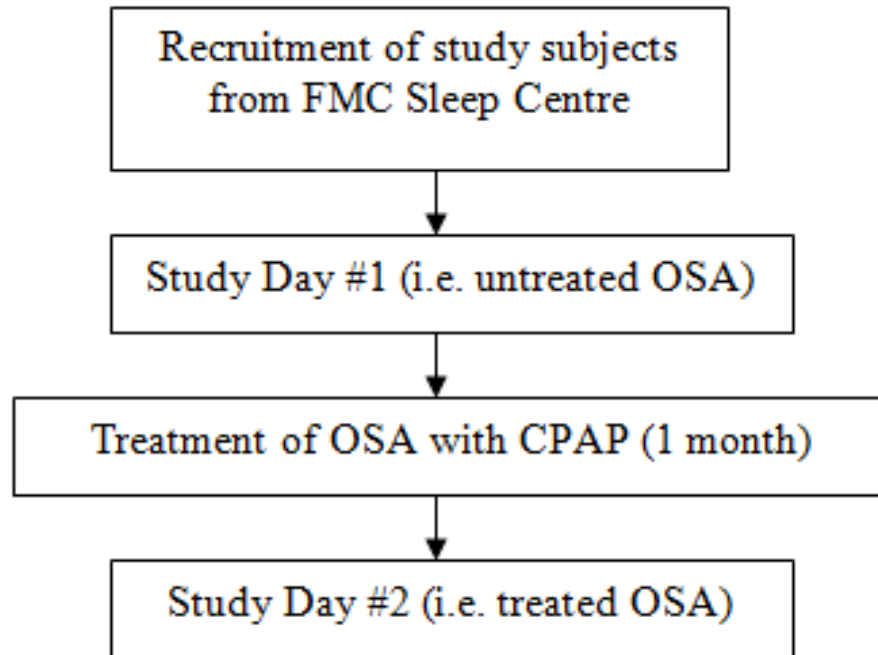


Figure 2: Overview of Study Protocol

CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure; FMC, Foothills Medical Centre; OSA, obstructive sleep apnea

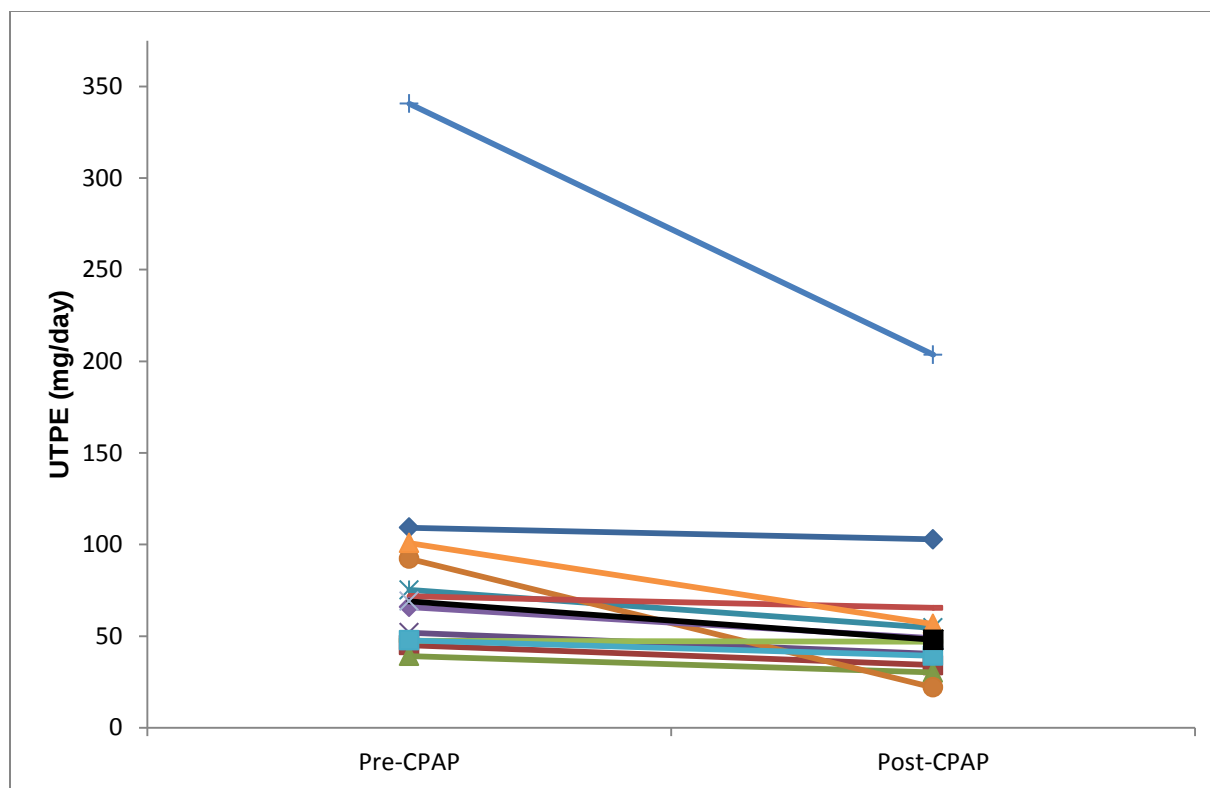


Figure 3: Urinary Total Protein Excretion pre- and post-CPAP therapy. $P=0.002$. CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure; UTPE, urinary total protein excretion

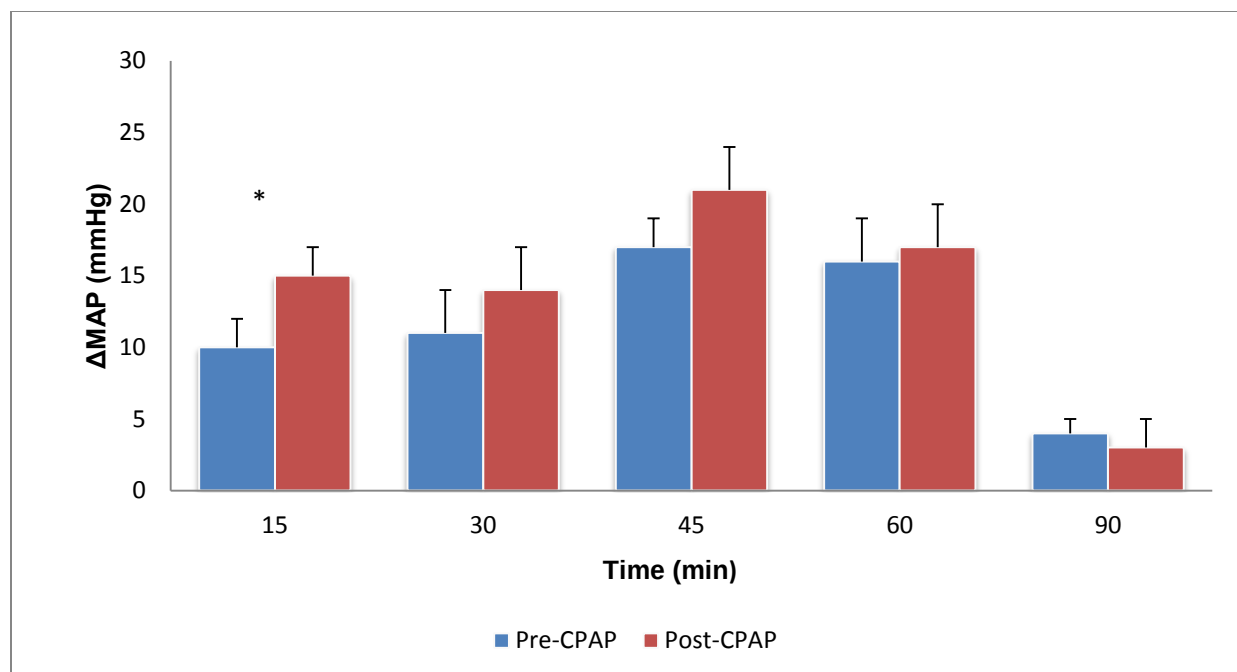


Figure 4: Mean Arterial Pressure Response to Angiotensin II Infusion pre- and post CPAP therapy. *P=0.019.

CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure; MAP, mean arterial pressure

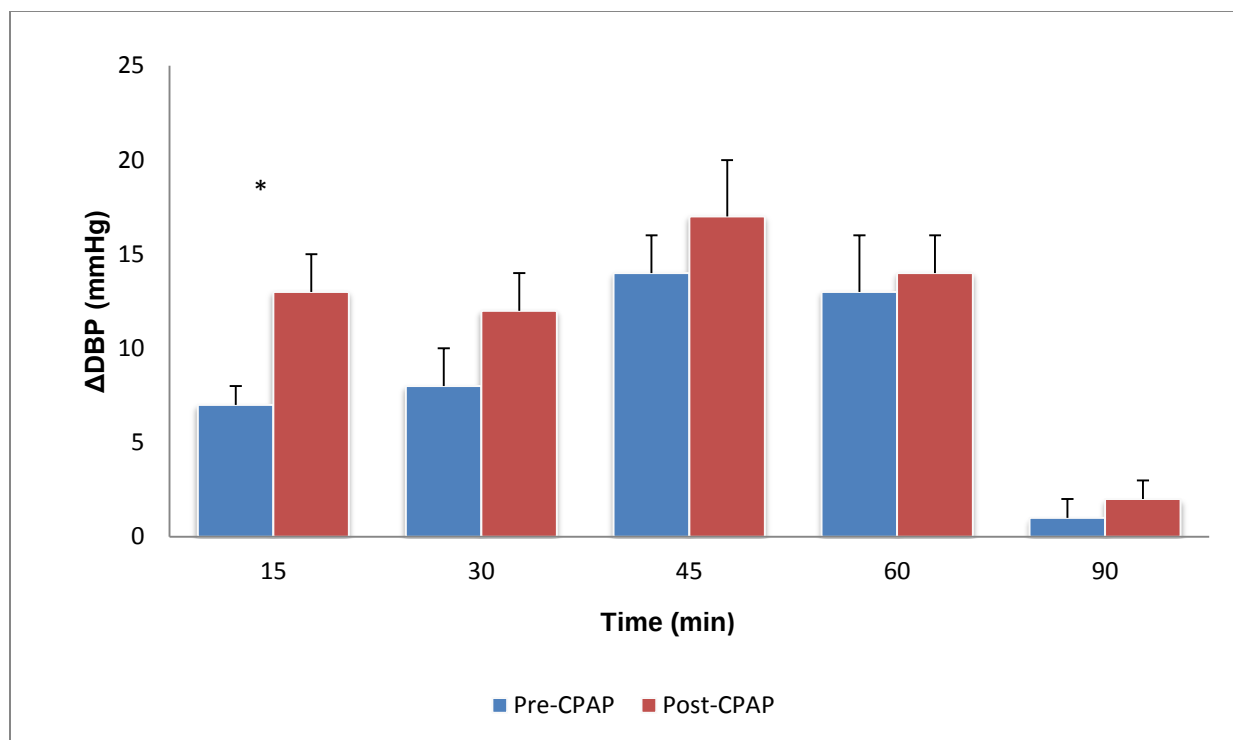


Figure 5: Diastolic Blood Pressure Response to Angiotensin II Infusion pre- and post CPAP therapy. *P=0.009.

CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure

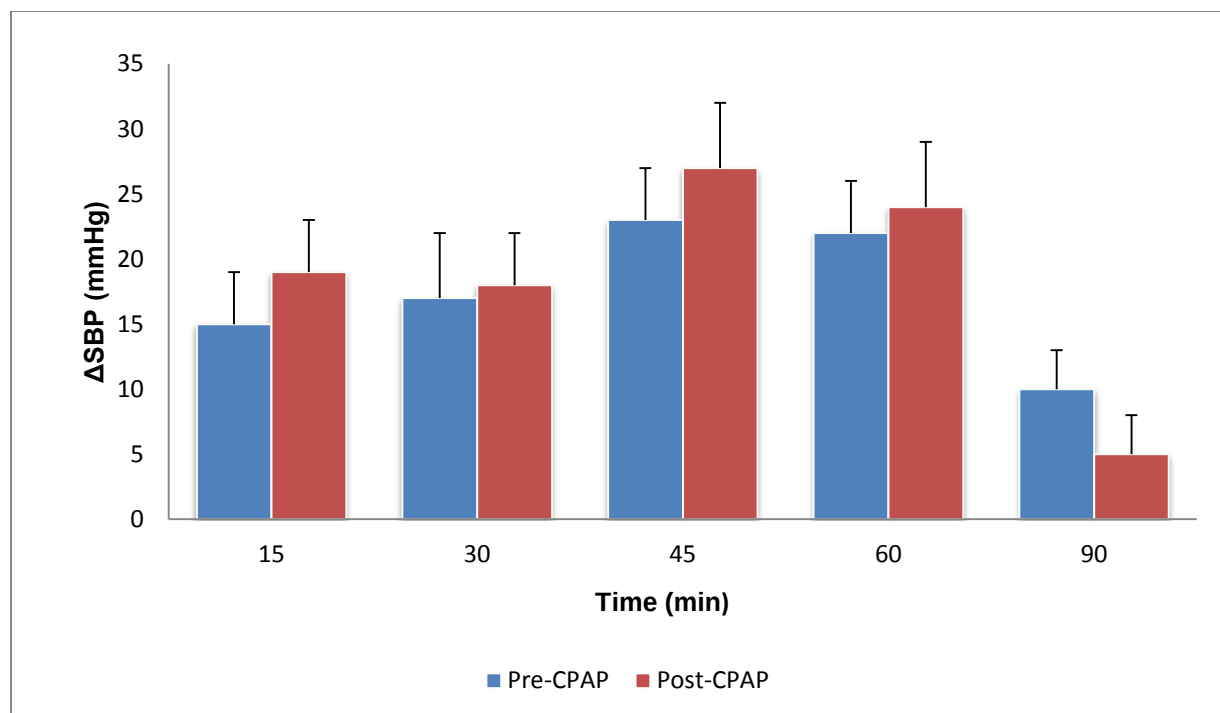


Figure 6: Systolic Blood Pressure Response to Angiotensin II Infusion pre- and post CPAP therapy. P=NS.

CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure; NS, non-significant; SBP, systolic blood pressure

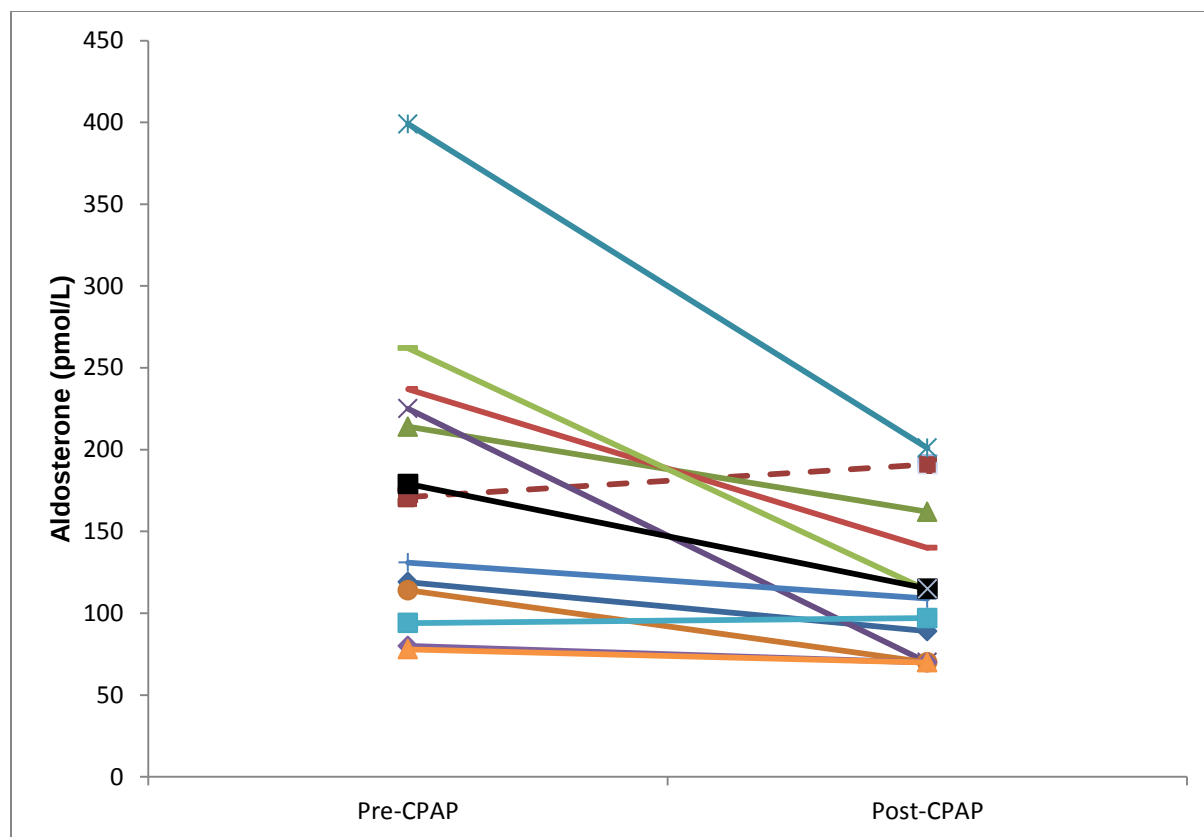


Figure 7: Aldosterone pre- and post-CPAP therapy. $P=0.006$.
CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure

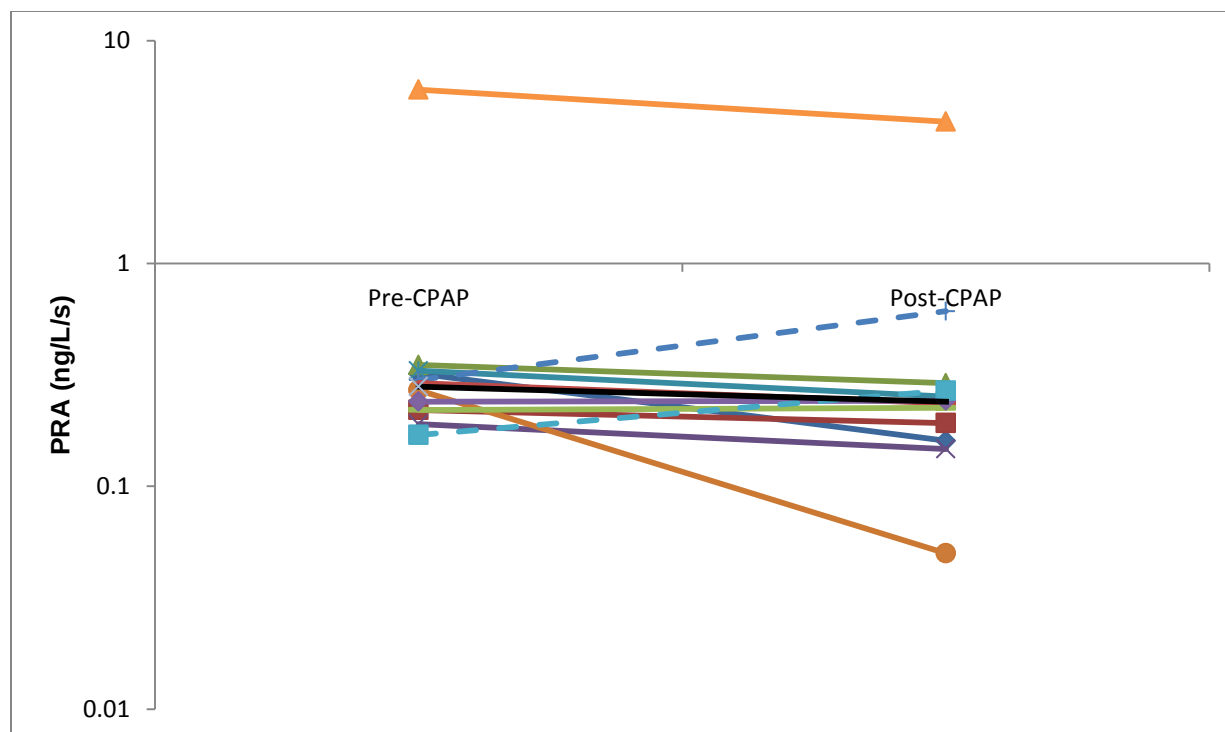


Figure 8: Plasma Renin Activity pre- and post-CPAP therapy. $P=0.18$. CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure; PRA, plasma renin activity

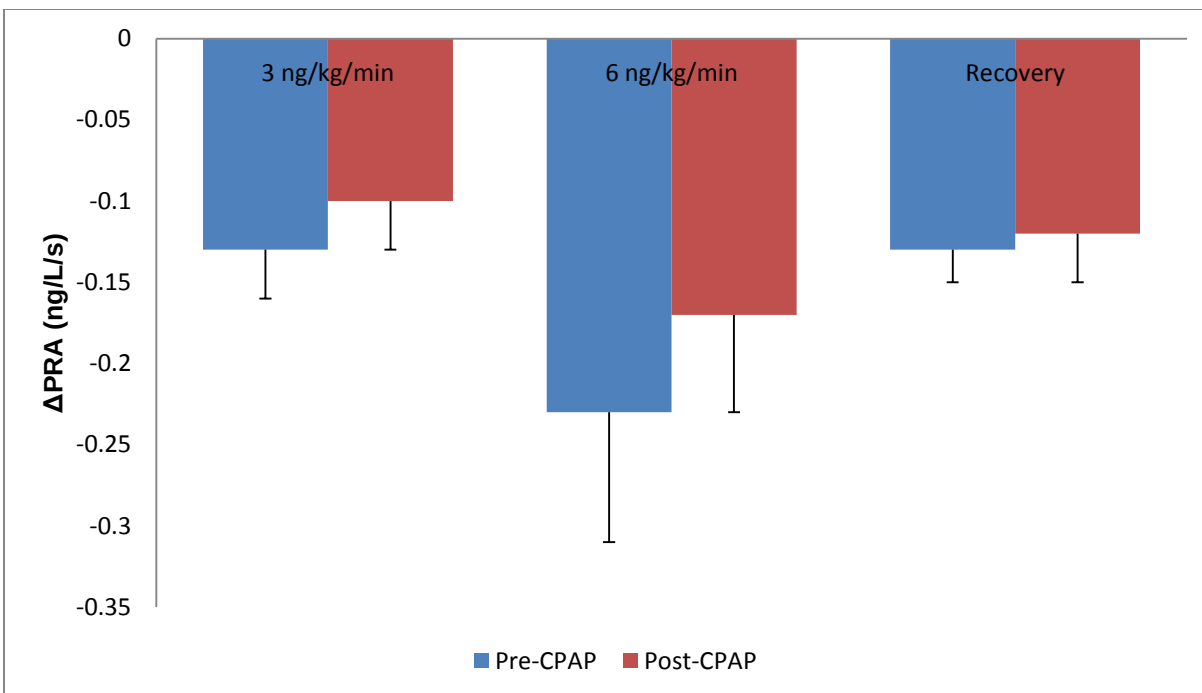


Figure 9: Plasma Renin Activity Response to Angiotensin II Infusion pre- and post CPAP therapy. P=NS.

CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure; NS, non-significant; PRA, plasma renin activity

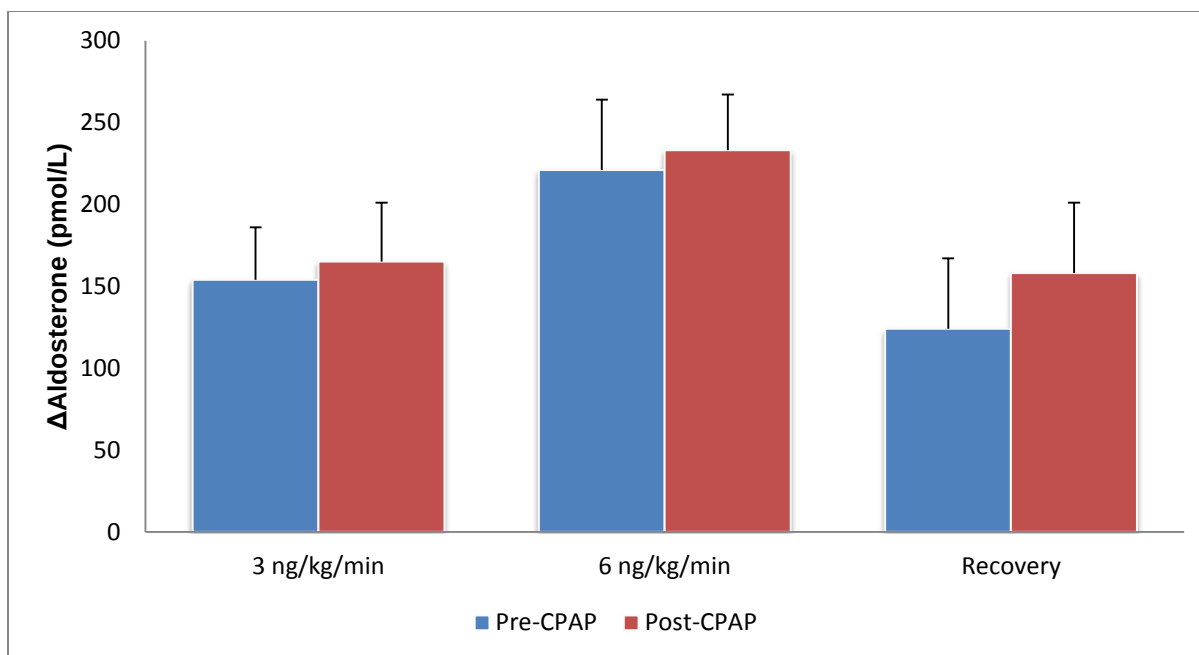


Figure 10: Aldosterone Response to Angiotensin II Infusion pre- and post CPAP therapy. P=NS.

CPAP, continuous positive airway pressure; NS, non-significant

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